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RETINOSCOPY

(OR SHADOW TEST)

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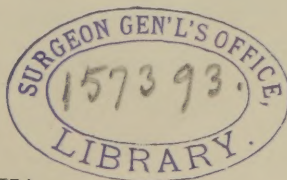
DETERMINATION OF REFRACTION AT ONE METER
DISTANCE, WITH THE PLANE MIRROR

BY

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PREFACE.

At the earnest solicitation of many students and friends, this book is presented as an abstract of the author's previous writings and lectures on Retinoscopy, delivered during the winter course on Ophthalmology, at the Philadelphia Polyclinic.

In presenting a manual of this kind the writer does not presume to detract from the writings or teachings of others, or the excellent work on Skiascopy, by his friend and colleague, Dr. E. Jackson ; but wishes to elucidate in as concise a manner and few words as possible the method of applying retinoscopy, which has given most satisfaction at his hands.

While intended for college students and post-graduates, yet there is ample material given whereby the ophthalmologist at a distance may acquire a working knowledge of the method, by study and practice in his own office.

For three reasons Retinoscopy, in preference to Skiascopy, has been chosen as the title ; namely, that

it may not be confounded with Skiagraphy, as it is the name by which the test is universally known, and as it is the retina in its relative position to the refractive media, which we study.

120 S. EIGHTEENTH ST., PHILADELPHIA, PA.

March, 1897.

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RETINOSCOPY.

CHAPTER I.

DEFINITION.—NAMES.—PRINCIPLE AND VALUE OF
RETINOSCOPY.—SUGGESTIONS TO THE
BEGINNER.

Definition.—Retinoscopy may be defined as the method of estimating the refraction of an eye by reflecting into it rays of light from a plane or concave mirror, and observing the movement which the retinal illumination makes by rotating the mirror.

Names.—DioptroscoPy, fundus-reflex test,* keratotomy, fantoscopy, pupilloscopy, retinophotoscopy, retinoskiascopy, skiascopy, umbrascopy, etc., are some of the other names given to this form of refraction, and their number and greater or less inappropriateness have had much to do, no doubt, with keeping retinoscopy in the background of ophthalmology instead of giving it the prominence which it more justly deserved and now receives.

The principle of retinoscopy is the finding of the point of reversal, and to do this, if the eye is not already sufficiently myopic, it may be necessary to place in front of the eye being examined such a lens

* Suggested by Oliver.

or series of lenses as will bring the emergent rays of light to a focus at a certain definite distance. (See Point of Reversal, chap. iv.)

Value of Retinoscopy.—Those who would criticize retinoscopy because “we see nothing and think nothing of the condition of the fundus,” base their criticism apparently on the name, retinoscopy, rather than from any great amount of practical experience with the method. While admitting that the ophthalmoscope in front of a well-trained eye can often make a close refractive estimate, yet only to the few does such skill obtain, and even then there is that uncertainty which does not attach itself to the retinoscope in competent hands. The ophthalmologist who knows how to use the mirror accurately has the advantage of his confrères who are ignorant of the test; it gives him a position decidedly independent of his patient, and puts him above the common level of the traveling “Great Doctor Eye” and “refracting optician,” who are tied to the trial-lenses and the patient’s uncertain answers. Furthermore, when it is remembered that from 50 to 80 per cent. of the patients consulting the ophthalmologist do so for an error of refraction, it is well that he be most capable in this important part of the subject.

The wonderful advantage of retinoscopy over other methods needs no argument to uphold it; the rapidly increasing number of retinoscopists testify to its merits.

The writer, from the constant use of the mirror, would suggest the following axiom: That, *with an eye otherwise normal except for its refractive error,*

and being under the influence of a reliable cycloplegic, there is no more accurate objective method of obtaining its exact correction than by retinoscopy.

Retinoscopy gives the following advantages:

The character of the refraction is quickly diagnosed.

The exact refraction is obtained without questioning the patient.

Little time is required to make the test.

No expensive apparatus is necessarily required.

Its great value can never be estimated in nystagmus, young children, amblyopia, aphakia, illiterates, and the feeble-minded.

From what has just been written it must not be understood that the patient's glasses are ordered immediately, from the result obtained by retinoscopy; for, on the contrary, all retinoscopic work, like ophthalmometry, should be confirmed at the trial-case.

It is only in the feeble-minded, the young, and in cases of amblyopia that glasses are ordered direct from the result obtained in the dark room.

The subjective method of placing lenses before the patient's eyes and letting him decide by asking "is this better?" or "is this worse?" only too often fatigues the examiner and worries the patient, giving him or her a dread or fear of inaccuracy that does not satisfy the surgeon or tend to inspire the patient. But when the correct glasses are found by retinoscopy and placed before the patient's eyes and he reads $\frac{6}{6}$ or $\frac{20}{20}$ or more, it is easy to hold up a plus and minus quarter diopter glass respectively in front

of this correction, and let the patient tell at once if either glass improves or diminishes the vision.

The writer is not condemning the subjective or other methods of refraction, or trying to extol too highly the shadow-test, yet he would remind those

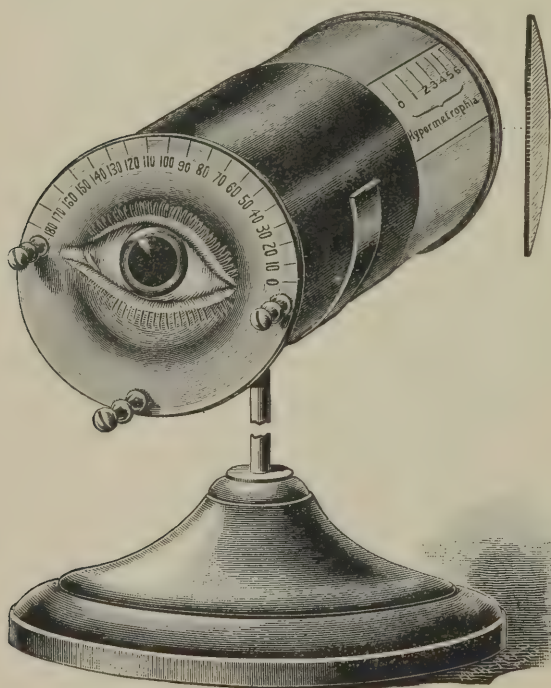


FIG. 1.—THE AUTHOR'S SCHEMATIC EYE FOR STUDYING RETINOSCOPY.
(For description, see chap. vi.)

who try retinoscopy, fail, and then ridicule it, that the fault with them is back and not in front of the mirror.

Suggestions to the Beginner.—To obtain proficiency in retinoscopy there is much to be understood.

Careful attention to details must be given, and not a little patience possessed, as it is not a method that is acquired in a day, and it is only after weeks of constant application that accuracy is acquired. Therefore the beginner is strongly advised to learn the major points from one of the many schematic eyes in the market before attempting the human eye. At the same time he should be perfectly familiar with the laws of refraction and dioptrics, as an understanding of conjugate foci is really the underlying principle of the method ; the retina being one focus and the myopic or artificially-made far point the other.

What is meant by major points applies more particularly to the study of the retinal illumination, its direction and apparent rate of movement, also its size and form, the distance between the observer and the patient, how to handle the mirror, etc., all of which are referred to under their special headings.

CHAPTER II.

RETINOSCOPE.—LIGHT.—LIGHT-SCREEN.—DARK ROOM.
SOURCE OF LIGHT AND POSITION OF MIRROR.—
OBSERVER, AND PATIENT.

The Retinoscope or Mirror.—Two forms of the plane mirror are in use—the one large, four centimeters in diameter with a four or five millimeter sight-hole often cut through the glass; and the other small, two centimeters in diameter, on a four centimeter metal disc, with sight-hole two millimeters in diameter, *not* cut through the glass, the quicksilver or plating alone being removed. By thus leaving the glass at the sight-hole, additional reflecting surface is obtained at this point, which assists materially in exact work, as it diminishes the dark central shadow that shows so conspicuously when the sight-hole is cut through the glass. The small mirror has an advantage over the large by reducing the area of reflected light, as only a one centimeter area on each side of the sight-hole is of particular use. The small plane mirror* is the one recommended, and is made with either a straight or folding handle; the latter is for the purpose of protecting the mirror when carried in the pocket. The purpose of the metal disc on which the small mirror is secured is to

* *Philadelphia Polyclinic*, November, 1893. Another form is described by Dr. E. Jackson, *American Journal of Ophthalmology*, April, 1896.

keep the light out of the observer's eye, and enable him to rest the instrument against the brow and side of the nose, but if its size should appear small, the observer can easily have a larger one made to suit his convenience. The plating or silvering on the mirror should be of the best, for on its quality depends, in part, the good reflecting power of the mirror, which is very important.

The central shadow just referred to as the result of the sight-hole had best be seen by the beginner,

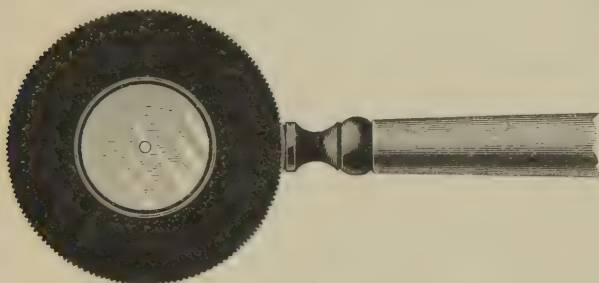


FIG. 2.—THE AUTHOR'S RETINOSCOPE.*

by reflecting the light from the mirror on to a clear surface, before he begins any study, as this dark area may annoy him later if he does not understand its origin.

The Light.—This should be steady, clear, and white. The Welsbach possesses all these qualities, but unfortunately its delicate mantle will not stand much jarring, and is easily broken in consequence, causing much loss of time and annoyance. The

* See foot-note on preceding page.

electric light with a twisted carbon and ground-glass covering with a round center of clear glass, is growing quite popular. For constant service, however, the Argand burner is decidedly the best, when the asbestos light-screen is used to intercept the heat. Whatever light is employed, it is well to have it on an extension bracket, so that the observer may move it to or from the patient, as necessary.

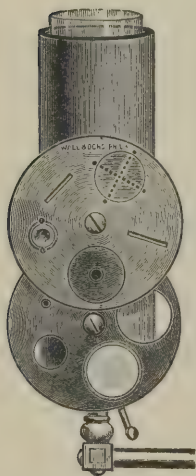


FIG. 3.—THE AUTHOR'S LIGHT-SCREEN OR COVER CHIMNEY.

(For a further description, see chap. vi.)

The light-screen or cover chimney is made of one-eighth inch asbestos, and of sufficient size (six centimeters in diameter by twenty-one in height) to fit over the glass chimney of the Argand burner.

Attached to the screen are two superimposed revolving discs that furnish four round openings, respectively five, ten, twenty, and thirty millimeters, any one of which may be turned into place as occasion may require. Care should be taken that the opening used is placed opposite to the brightest part of the flame. Formerly these screens were made of sheet-iron,

but the asbestos has been found preferable, as it does not radiate the heat to the same extent as the iron. The purpose of the light-screen is to cover all of the flame except the portion which presents at the opening in the disc.

The room must be darkened—and the darker the

better—all sources of light to be excluded except the one in use. It must not be supposed from this that the room must have its walls and ceiling blackened; on the contrary, if the shades are drawn the room will be sufficiently dark, though of course a perfectly black room would be best, as giving a greater contrast to the condition to be studied. The exclusion of other lights, or beams of light, must be insisted upon, as the principal use of the darkened room is to keep all light out of the eye to be examined except the light in use.

As the method of using the concave mirror with source of light (20 or 30 mm. opening in screen) beyond its principal focus (usually over and beyond the patient's head) has been superseded by the simpler and easier method of using the small plane mirror with source of light (one-half or one cm. opening in light-screen), brought as close to the mirror as possible, the description of retinoscopy which follows will refer to the latter.

The Source of Light and Position of the Mirror.—The rays of light coming out of the round opening in the light-screen should be five or six inches to the left of the observer, so that they may pass *in front* of the left eye and fall upon the mirror held before the right, thus leaving the observer's left eye in comparative darkness; or the observer may use the mirror before the left eye in case he is left-handed and has the light to his right. It is always best for the observer to keep both eyes wide open and to avoid having any light fall into the unused eye, which would cause him much annoyance. Some ob-

servers hold the mirror before the eye next to the screen, but this is not recommended for the reasons just mentioned.

The observer must necessarily wear his correcting glasses, but need not make any note of his accommodation, as in using the ophthalmoscope. He should take his seat facing the patient and, as the strength of the reflected light rapidly weakens as the distance between the mirror and the light-screen is increased, he should have the light-screen close to his face (not less than six inches) if he wishes to get the fullest possible strength of light on the mirror; and when working to find the point of reversal, more exact work will be accomplished if this distance between light and mirror is very short. The further the light from the mirror, the less brilliant its reflection and the larger or more prominent the central shadow of the sight-hole in the mirror—*two very serious objections.*

The patient must have his accommodation thoroughly relaxed with a reliable cycloplegic, and should be seated comfortably, one meter distant, in front of the observer, with his vision steadily fixed on the observer's forehead, just above the mirror. Or, what is even better, the patient may concentrate his vision on the edge of the metal disc of the mirror, but never directly into the mirror, as that would soon irritate and compel him to close his eye.

In this way the patient avoids the strain of looking into the bright reflected light, and at the same time the macular region is refracted. It is customary to cover the patient's *other* eye while its fellow

is being refracted ; for obvious reasons this is specially important in cases of "squint." To get the patient's eye and the observer's forehead just one meter apart, the distance may be marked off on the wall of the dark room on the side where the light is secured, or a meter stick for the purpose may be held in the hand of the observer or his assistant.

CHAPTER III.

DISTANCE OF SURGEON FROM PATIENT.—ARRANGEMENT OF PATIENT, LIGHT, AND OBSERVER.—REFLECTION FROM MIRROR.—HOW TO USE THE MIRROR.—WHAT THE OBSERVER SEES.—RETINAL ILLUMINATION.—SHADOW.—WHERE AND WHAT TO LOOK FOR.

Distance of Surgeon from Patient.—There is no fixed rule for this, and each surgeon may select his own distance. It might be well for the beginner to try different distances and then choose for himself. The writer prefers a one meter distance, and with few exceptions adheres to it. Some prefer six meters, others two meters, etc. The distance of one meter has two important advantages: There is no getting up or down to place lenses in front of the patient's eye, as the patient or surgeon, or both, may lean forward for this purpose, if necessary. Another advantage is that at one meter distance there is a uniform allowance of one diopter in the estimate, which will be explained more fully under Rules for Retinoscopy at One Meter.

Arrangement of Patient, Light, and Observer.—This has already been described in great part, but reference to the accompanying sketch may give the student a more exact appreciation of the arrangement than any lengthy description could do.

For convenience of the beginner in using the mirror, it is best, as here shown, to keep the surgeon's

eye, the light, and the patient's eye on a horizontal line. The beginner will find it sufficiently difficult at first to keep the light on the patient's eye with the mirror held perpendicularly, without inclining it up or down, as he would have to do if the arrangement suggested is not carried out.

Reflection from the Mirror.—The rays of light coming from the round opening in the screen to



FIG. 4.—ARRANGEMENT OF PATIENT, LIGHT, AND OBSERVER.

the plane mirror are reflected divergently, as if they came from the opening in the screen situated just as far back in the mirror as they originally started from in front (see Figs. 13, 15, and 16), and the patient looking into the mirror sees a round, bright red spot, just as large as the opening in the screen.

The nearer the light and mirror are brought together the brighter will be the reflected rays, and

the more nearly will the observer's eye and source of light correspond.

How to Use the Mirror.—It should be held firmly before the right eye so that the sight-hole is opposite to the observer's pupil; and that it may be steady, the second phalanx of the thumb should rest

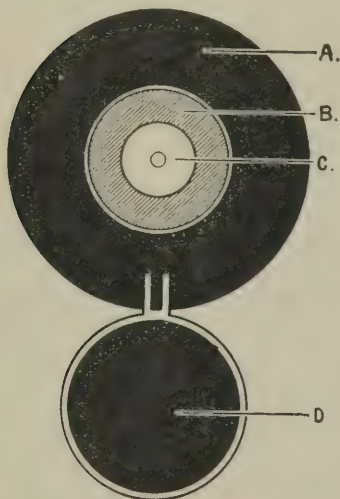


FIG. 5.

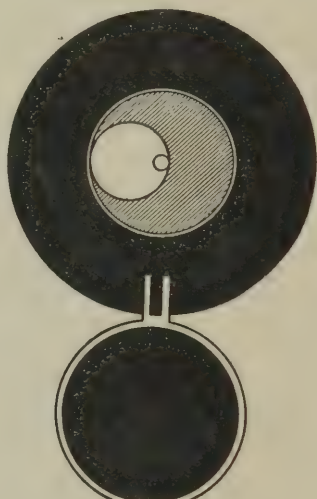


FIG. 6.

AUTHOR'S MIRROR WITH FOLDING HANDLE.

FIG. 5.—Showing central light C, on small mirror B. This is the light the patient sees when looking into the mirror, and corresponds in size to the one centimeter opening in screen. D is the folding cap handle to protect B when not in use. A is the metal disc.

FIG. 6.—Shows the light moved to one side or as a result of tilting the mirror.

on the cheek just below the eye, the edge of the metal disc even touching the side of the nose if the observer's interpupillary distance is not too great. Thus held in position, its movements should be very limited, though they may be slow or quick, but *never*

at any time should it be tilted more than two or three millimeters ; for if inclined *more* than this, the light is lost from the patient's eye. If the light, the patient's, and the observer's eyes are on a horizontal line, then to find the patient's eye with the reflected light all the observer has to do is to reflect the light back into the light-screen, and by rotating the mirror to his right, carry the reflected light around on the same line until the patient's eye is reached. This may seem like a superabundance of instruction, but the finding of the patient's eye, which appears so easy, is an immense stumbling-block, at the beginning, to most students. Another way to find the eye is for the observer to hold his left hand up between his and the patient's eye and reflect the light on to it, and when this is done to drop his hand and let the light pass into the observed eye. Having succeeded in finding the patient's eye, the observer, if he is not very careful in his limited movements of the mirror and himself, will turn the light from the eye almost before he knows it, and so be compelled to start and find it again ; this causes much loss of time. A little practice on the schematic eye will assist the beginner wonderfully, and give him courage, for if he hastens to the human eye, and then has to stop every minute or so to try and get the light on the eye, he soon becomes discouraged and shows his want of experience to the patient.

What the observer sees ; or the general appearance of the reflection from the eye.—With the mirror held still before his eye, and close up to the bright light coming from the five or ten millimeter

opening in the light-screen, the observer will obtain a reflection from the patient's eye, which varies in different patients, and is subject to certain changes in the same patient as the refraction is altered by correcting lenses, or it may be changed by the turning of the patient's head, or lengthening the distance between the mirror and the light, or increasing or diminishing the strength of the light, or increasing the distance between the observer and the patient. The reflection from the eye of the albino or blond is much brighter than from the brunette or mulatto, in whom it is not so bright, even dim. This character of the reflex is controlled, of course, in great part, by the amount of pigment in the eye ground; however, in most instances there is more or less of an orange-red color to the reflex. Cases of high errors of refraction give a dull reflection as compared to low errors, where the reflection is usually *very* bright. Should the media be irregular or not perfectly clear the reflection is altered accordingly; this will be referred to under the head of Irregular Astigmatism. The observer will also notice on the cornea and lens pin-point catoptric images, and at the inner edge of the iris, in most eyes, a very bright ring of light about one millimeter in width, which is due to the very strong peripheral refraction; and as the eye is being refracted and the point of reversal approached, this peripheral ring may develop into a broader ring of aberration rays, which at times will be annoying. This will be referred to under Spheric Aberration, chapter vi.

Retinal Illumination.—By holding a strong con-

vex lens closer to or further from a plane surface than its principal focus, and letting the sun's rays pass through it, there will be seen on the plane surface a round area of light; it is this light area which corresponds to the illumination on the retina, seen in retinoscopy by reflecting the light from the mirror into the patient's eye, and hence it is spoken of as the retinal illumination.

Of course the size and form of this illumination is controlled, in great part, by the refraction of the patient's eye.

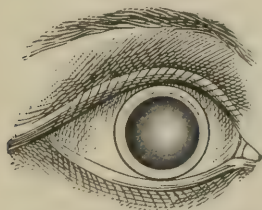


FIG. 7.—SMALL RETINAL ILLUMINATION TO ONE SIDE, BY TILTING THE MIRROR.

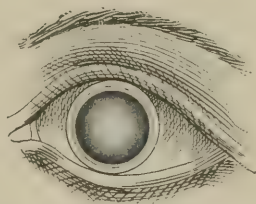


FIG. 8.—SMALL RETINAL ILLUMINATION (CENTRAL).

Shadow.—This is the nonilluminated portion of the retina immediately surrounding the illumination. The illumination and shadow are therefore in contact, and the contrast is most marked and easily recognized when the illumination is brightest. It is by this combination of the illumination and non-illumination (shadow) that we study and give the "shadow test" its name. In the dark room, the patient keeping his eye fixed, the retina is stationary and in total darkness, except the portion illuminated by the light from the mirror. (See Fig. 8.) If the

mirror be rotated, the retinal illumination changes its place (see Fig. 7) and darkness (or shadow) appears in its stead. It is by this change of illumination and shadow (darkness) that we often speak of a movement of the shadow.

Where and What to Look For.—With the patient, the observer, and the source of light in position as directed, the rays of light are reflected into the eye from the mirror as it is gently rotated in the various meridians, and the (1) *form*, (2) *size*, (3) *direction*, and (4) *rate of movement* of the retinal illumination are carefully noted through a four or five, or even six, millimeter area *at the apex of the cornea*, as *this* is the part of the refractive media in the normal eye that the patient will use *when* the effects of the cycloplegic pass away and the pupil regains its normal size.

The one or two millimeter area at the edge of the pupil should be avoided by the beginner, except in special instances, as only too frequently it contains a bright ring of light which may or may not give a stronger refraction than the area at the apex of the cornea. See Spheric Aberration, chapter vi.

CHAPTER IV.

POINT OF REVERSAL.—TO FIND THE POINT OF REVERSAL.—WHAT TO AVOID.—DIRECTION OF MOVEMENT OF RETINAL ILLUMINATION.—RATE OF MOVEMENT, SIZE, AND FORM.—RULES FOR LENSES.—MOVEMENT OF MIRROR AND APPARATUS.

Point of Reversal.—This may be stated in several ways. It is the myopic far point (*punctum remotum*) or artificial focal point of the emergent rays of light, figure 14, or the point where the emergent rays cease to converge and commence to diverge, or the point conjugate to the retina, figure 17, or where the erect image ends and the inverted image begins.

To Find the Point of Reversal.—The recognition of the point of reversal is the principle of retinoscopy. It is what is sought for, and, when obtained under certain definite arrangements, is the correct solution of the test. During the test it is easy to tell when the shadow moves with or against the light on the face, but to get the exact point where there is no apparent movement is not always easy, and is only acquired after careful practice.

For example, having determined at one meter that the retinal illumination with a $+ 1.50$ D just moves with the light on the face, and against with a $+ 1.75$ D, we know that the reversal point must be between the strength of the two lenses, or $+ 1.62$ D. This demonstrates how we arrive at the exact correction, and also the capability and accuracy of retinoscopy.

The method of obtaining the point of reversal much closer than one meter requires such an exactness in measuring and calculating that it does not meet with the general favor and satisfaction accorded to that found by producing an artificial myopia of one diopter or less, for the reason that at points closer than one meter, if an error of one or two inches has been made in defining the focus of the emergent rays a decided mistake will be the result. The point of reversal or focus of emergent rays is always negative in hyperopic and emmetropic eyes. In myopic eyes, however, the emergent rays always focus at some point inside of infinity, and the observer may, therefore, if he is so disposed, by moving his light and mirror to or from the patient's eye, as the case may be, find a point where the retinal illumination ceases to move. If this should be at two meters the patient would have a myopia of 0.50 D; if at four meters, a myopia of 0.25 D; if at one meter, a myopia of one diopter, etc.

It is well for the beginner to remember, when using the plane mirror, that the illumination *on the patient's face always moves in the same direction the mirror is tilted*, but *not* necessarily so in the pupillary area, where it may move opposite; and *here* it is that we speak of the retinal illumination moving with or against (opposite to) the movement of the mirror, as the case may be, and make our diagnosis accordingly.

As the rays of light from the mirror proceed divergently to the patient's eye, as if they came from a point back in the mirror equal to the distance of the

light (opening in light-screen) in front of it and working at one meter's distance, with source of light five inches in front of the mirror, the rays appear to emerge from a point five inches back of the mirror, or a total distance of 45 inches from the patient's eye, thus giving the rays of light a divergence equal to 0.87 of a diopter before they reach the patient's eye, and this point may be made conjugate to the retina. The observer will do good work if he reduces the retinal illumination to the utmost limit where it can be faintly seen moving with the movement of the mirror, and *if* this is done the observer's eye and mirror will be just inside of the point of reversal, where the erect image can still be recognized.

At the point of reversal no definite image is made out and the pupillary area is seen to be brilliantly illuminated.

If the observer's eye is, at this point, exactly conjugate to the retina, then the movement of the reflected light on the retina cannot be perceived (though it does move), and the retinal illumination will occupy the entire pupil and the shadow will be absent.

Instead, however, of reducing the retinal illumination to the utmost limit (as just mentioned), where it can be faintly seen moving with the movement of the mirror, the writer prefers and recommends placing before the eye under examination such a lens or series of lenses as will bring the emergent rays of light to a focus on his own retina, so that no movement of the retinal illumination can be recognized.

When the point of reversal is approached, the uni-

form color of the retinal illumination occupies so much of the pupillary area that the student may think he has reached the point of reversal, and if he is not careful to pass the retinal illumination slowly across the pupil and get the shadow, he will find his result deficient, and possibly miss seeing some small amount of astigmatism.

To make sure about the point of reversal, it is always best, especially for the beginner, to keep putting on stronger neutralizing lenses until he gets a *reversal* of movement, when he knows at once that he has passed the point of focus of the emergent rays.

The lenses which control the rays of light emerging from the patient's eye are spoken of as neutralizing lenses.

What to Avoid.—It occasionally happens that a retinal vessel or vessels, or even the nerve head, may be seen when the light is reflected into the eye; if so, they are to be ignored, as they are not parts of the test. If the patient's eye is turned, or the rays from the mirror fall obliquely, or the neutralizing lens in front of the eye is inclined instead of being perpendicular, there will be seen reflections of light and images upon the neutralizing lens or cornea, or both, and, in consequence, the retinal illumination is more or less hidden or obscured; these images and reflections can be easily corrected by removing the cause. The catoptric images cannot be removed, but, as they are very small, the beginner soon learns to ignore them. The retinal illumination may contain a small dark center, which will disturb the beginner unless he remembers that it is

caused by the sight-hole in the mirror, and that it shows particularly when the sight-hole is large and cut through the mirror. This same dark center in the illumination is also seen at times when the light is removed some distance from the mirror, and the correcting lens almost neutralizes the refraction. The neutralizing lens should never be so close to the eye that the lashes touch, and, in warm weather especially, moisture from the patient's face may condense on the trial-lens, and temporarily, until it is removed, obscure the reflex.

Retinoscopy with a Plane Mirror at One Meter's Distance and Source of Light close to the Mirror.—Direction of Movement of Retinal Illumination.—Rate of Movement.—Size and Form.—These important points in reference to the retinal illumination should be decided promptly and without any prolonged examination. This proficiency, of course, will only come by practice, and if, on first examination, the observer cannot decide whether the retinal illumination is with or opposite to the movement of the reflected light on the face, he may approach the eye until this point is determined. The four important essentials may be stated in the following order and in the form of rules :

Direction.—The movement of the retinal illumination, when rotating the mirror, going *with* the movement of the light on the patient's face, signifies emmetropia, hyperopia, or myopia, if the myopia be *less* than one diopter.

The apparent movement of the retinal illumination going *opposite* to the movement of the light on

the face always signifies myopia of *more* than one diopter.

Rate.—The larger the retinal illumination the more slowly it appears to move, and generally, not always, requires a strong lens for its correction.

The smaller the retinal illumination the faster it appears to move, and generally, not always, requires a weak lens for its correction. What has already been said in regard to the **rate** of movement also applies to the **size** of the illumination.

Form.—If the retinal illumination is a band of light extending across the pupil it signifies astigmatism.

The width of the band of light does not indicate so much the strength of the correcting cylinder required as does the apparent rate of movement; if slow, a strong, if fast, a weak, cylinder is required.

A large round illumination, while it may signify hyperopia or myopia, does not preclude astigmatism in combination.

When the illumination appears to move faster in one meridian than the meridian at right angles to it, astigmatism will be in the meridian of slow movement.

The band of light that is seen when a spheric lens corrects one meridian, and the meridian at right angles remains partly corrected, indicates the axis of the cylinder in the prescription.

Rules for Placing Neutralizing Lenses.—A *plus* lens is required when the retinal illumination moves *with* the illumination on the face, and a *minus*

lens is required when it moves *opposite* to the light on the face.

Movement of the Mirror.—There are times when a quick movement, and, at other times, a slow or gradual movement is required. A substitution of the former for the latter, and the result cannot always be correct.

A quick movement may be used when looking into the eye before any correcting lens has been placed *in situ*. It often tells the character of the refraction.

The slow movement comes into use and is of the *utmost* importance when the eye has been

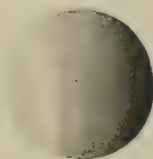


FIG. 9.—STRAIGHT EDGE, INDICATING ASTIGMATISM.



FIG. 10.—CRESCENT EDGE, INDICATING SPHERIC CORRECTION.

corrected to within 0.75 D or less, as it is generally at this point that so many, by a *quick* movement, hasten the peripheral rays and mask the central illumination, giving the idea at once of over-correction. This is a most common error with the beginner, the inexperienced, and with those who fail to get good results and who ridicule retinoscopy as “not exact,” or as “not agreeing with the subjective method.” It is well in *every* instance, when the point of reversal is approached, to pass the retinal illumination (not the light area on the face) well across the

pupil to make *sure* in regard to the character of shadow which follows or precedes it. This movement, at such a point in neutralization, may give a hint as to the presence of astigmatism or not, as a reference to drawings, figures 9 and 10, will show. The pre-

sence of astigmatism is known by the straight edge of the illumination, or, in its place, a crescent edge would mean a spheric correction.

Apparatus for placing lenses in front of the patient's eye.—There are several different forms in the market, their purpose being twofold—to save time and any extra movements on the part of the surgeon. Of these, that of Würdemann (*American Journal of Ophthalmology*, p. 223, 1891) seems the best hand skiascope. A reference to the sketch shows this instrument with its convenient handle, whereby the patient, being instructed, raises or lowers the disc in front of the eye, with its smooth, broad edge resting against the side of his nose.

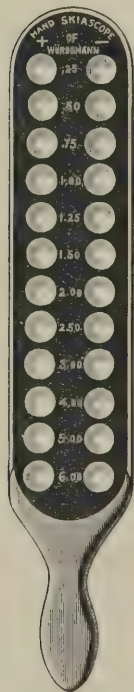


FIG. II.—WÜRDEMANN'S DISC.

One column contains plus and the other minus lenses, and as it is reversible, these may be placed in front of the eye as the surgeon directs.

The most modern and complete revolving skiascopic disc is that of Jennings (*American Journal of Ophthalmology*, November, 1896), and may be best understood from his own description: "It consists

of 39 lenses inclosed in an endless groove and propelled by a strong driving-wheel situated at the lower end of the frame. A small rod runs the length of the table, and is connected at one end with the driving-wheel and at the other with a small wheel within easy reach of the operator's hand. At the surgeon's

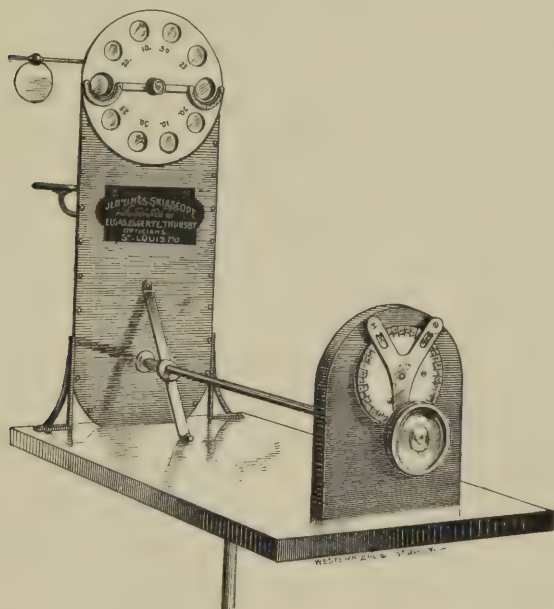


FIG. 12.—JENNING'S SKIASCOPIC DISC.

end of the table, and facing him, is a disc on which, at a certain aperture,—marked L or R, according to which eye is under examination,—is indicated the lens presented at the light-hole. The red numbers represent convex, and the white concave, lenses. The lenses range from 0.25 to 9 D plus and from 0.25 to 10 D minus. In addition to the lenses just

mentioned are eight others, 0.25, 0.50, 10 and 20 D plus and minus, set in a separate disc, any one of which can be put in front of the sight-hole without rotating the whole series of convex or concave lenses. By means of this extra disc we can make combinations from 0.25 to 29 D plus, and from 0.25 to 30 D minus. In front of each sight-hole is placed a cell, marked in degrees, to hold cylinders (not shown in drawing). Attached to the back of the upright frame, by means of a hinge, is a chin-rest and a movable blinder, both of which swing to the right or left as may be desired. The whole is mounted on a strong stand, which can be raised or lowered to suit the requirements of each patient. The essential advantages of this skiascope are as follows:

“(1) It saves time and fatigue in changing lenses.

“(2) It is under the control of the operator, and indicates the lens in front of the sight-hole without his getting up.

“(3) The mechanism is simple and durable.

“(4) There are no shafts, uprights, or indicators to obstruct the view of the operator.

“(5) It is only under exceptional circumstances that it is necessary to use the disc containing the extra lenses.

“(6) There is only one indicator and one wheel to turn.”

While either the hand or revolving disc are recommended, yet the writer is partial to an accurately fitting trial-frame, using the lenses from the trial-case, which should be conveniently at hand. The

following suggestions in the selection and use of the trial-frame are offered: The temples should rest easily on the ears, the nose-piece (bridge) to have a sufficiently long post to permit the eye-pieces to fit high and accurately over any pair of eyes, especially those of children, and have the corneæ occupy the center of each eye-piece. Correct results cannot be expected or quickly obtained unless the neutralizing lenses be placed with their centers corresponding to corneal centers, and at the same time perpendicular to the front of the eye.

CHAPTER V.

RETINOSCOPY IN EMMETROPIA AND THE VARIOUS FORMS OF REGULAR AMETROPIA.—AXONOMETER.

Hyperopia.—By rotating the mirror in the various meridians and making a note of the direction and rate of movement of the retinal illumination, which in this form of refraction is *with* the movement of the light on the patient's forehead, a strong or weak plus sphere, according to the apparent *rate* of movement, is placed before the eye, and the size and rate of movement of the retinal illumination are again noted; practice alone will guide the observer in a quick appreciation of the approximate strength of neutralizing lens to thus employ.

If the movement is rather slow and the observer has placed a $+ 2.75$ D before the eye (here the five mm. opening in the light-screen may be used to advantage), and the illumination is diminished in size and very faint, appearing to move fast and with the light on the face, the hyperopia is still slightly uncorrected, and a stronger lens must be substituted. Removing the $+ 2.75$ D, and placing a $+ 3.25$ D in its place, if the retinal illumination is found to move *opposite* to the movement of the light on the face, the refraction of the eye will then be between the $+ 2.75$ D and the 3.25 D, which is 3 D. (See example, p. 27, chap. iv.) Now, while the $+ 3$ D has brought the emergent rays to a focus at one

meter, it has made the eye myopic just one diopter, so that in taking the patient from the dark room to test his vision at six meters, or infinity, this one diopter (artificial myopia) must be subtracted from the $+ 3$ D, which would leave $+ 2$ D the amount of the hyperopia.

A reference to figures 13 and 14 will illustrate the description just given.

Figure 13 is the hyperopic eye with round central illumination and surrounding shadow. The pro-

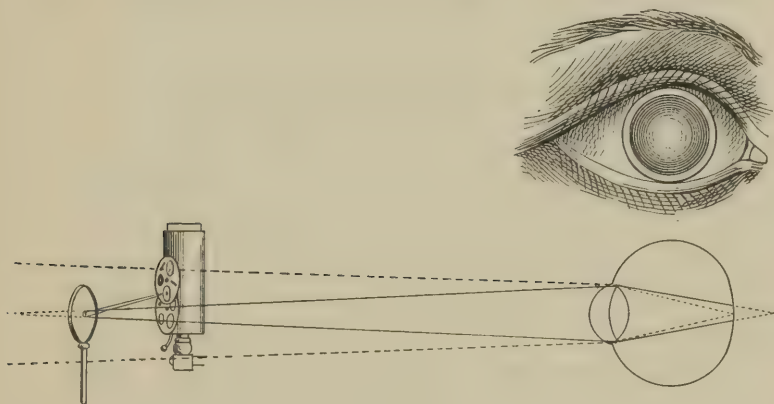


FIG. 13.

file view shows the mirror at one meter distance and light five inches from the mirror. The dotted lines represent the rays proceeding divergently from the eye under examination, the dark lines show the reflected rays from the mirror, which illuminate the retina and have an imaginary focus (dotted lines) beyond the retina.

Figure 14 is a profile view showing the hyperopic eye with neutralizing lens in position. The dotted

lines with arrow-heads indicate the direction the rays would naturally take coming from the eye. The lens (+ 3 D) in front of the eye is just sufficiently strong to bend these divergent rays and bring them to a focus at one meter's distance (artificial point of reversal). In other words, + 2 D of the three diopters thus placed before this hyperopic eye would have bent the divergent rays and made them parallel, or emmetropic, but the additional one diopter bends the rays still more and brings them to a focus (P. R.) at one meter. If now the ob-

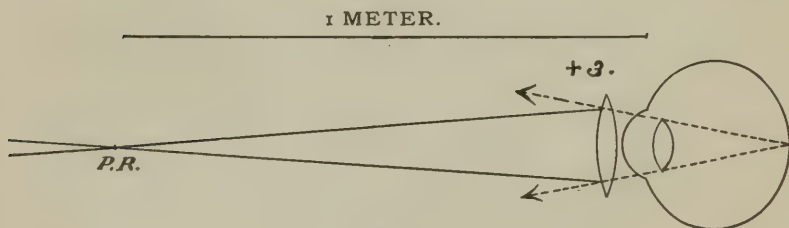


FIG. 14.

server approaches the eye thus refracted and observes the retinal illumination closer than one meter, he will be inside of the point of reversal, and consequently see an erect image moving with the direction of the movement of the mirror. If beyond this point of reversal, he would get an inverted image and the retinal illumination moving opposite to the movement of the mirror.

Emmetropia.—The emergent rays from an emmetropic eye are always parallel, and the rays of light from the mirror going into such an eye do not focus upon the retina, but form a small,

bright, central illumination, which moves *rapidly* with the light on the face as the mirror is slowly rotated.

A reference to figure 15 shows the emmetropic eye under examination with its retinal illumination smaller than in the hyperopic eye of two diopters just described. The profile view shows the position of light, mirror, and eye, as in figures 13 and 14. The dotted lines are the parallel emergent rays, and

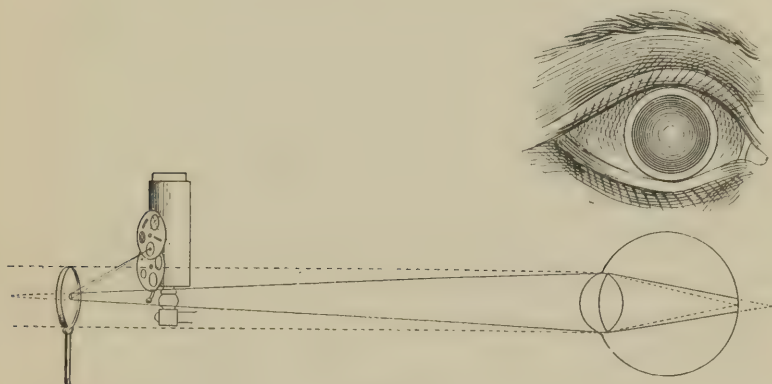


FIG. 15.

the solid lines the divergent rays from the mirror and an imaginary focus just beyond the retina. The purpose in this instance, as in all others of retinoscopy, is to place such a neutralizing lens before the eye as will bend the emergent rays and bring them to a focus at a certain definite distance, making the emergent rays from a point on the retina come to a focus on the observer's retina. Therefore, to reduce this small, bright, retinal illumination so that no movement can be seen in the pupillary area, and

at the same time have the emergent rays focus on the observer's retina, a $+ 1$ sphere must be placed before the eye.

Myopia.—In myopia the emergent rays *always* converge to the far point (point of reversal), and the observer, seated at one meter from the eye, will have the apparent movement of the retinal illumination going opposite to the light on the face *if* the myopia exceeds one diopter, and *with* the light on the face *if* the myopia is less than one diopter. If the myopia should be *just* one diopter, then the emergent rays would focus on the observer's retina at one meter, and there will not be any neutralizing lens required to accomplish this purpose; but if the emergent rays focus beyond one meter, the observer will be within this point of reversal or focus, and will, therefore, have an erect image, small, and moving fast with the movement of the mirror, and will have to place before the eye a plus lens of less than one diopter to bring the point of reversal up to one meter. When the myopia is more than one diopter, and observer at one meter, the emergent rays will have focused somewhere between the observer and patient, and, as a result, the retinal illumination appears to move opposite to the light upon the face, more or less rapidly, according to the amount of myopia; and a concave or minus lens must be placed in front of such an eye that will bring the emergent rays to a focus at one meter, or, in other words, will stop all apparent movement of the retinal illumination. If, for example, a -2.75 D has been so placed, and the movement is still slightly opposite to the movement

of the mirror, and a -3.25 D substituted makes the retinal illumination move *with* the movement of the mirror, then the neutralizing lens for one meter would be the difference between -2.75 D and -3.25 D, which will be -3 D.

Figure 16 shows the myopic eye just described, with its large retinal illumination, which would move opposite to the movement of the light on the patient's face. The profile view shows the position of the

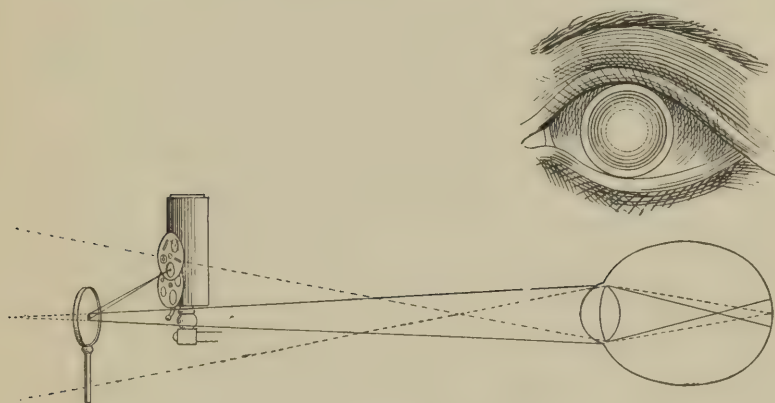


FIG. 16.

mirror, light, and eye, as in figures 13, 14, and 15. The solid lines represent the rays reflected divergently from the mirror focusing at a point in the vitreous before coming to the retina, and the broken lines show the rays emerging from a point on the retina and then converging to the focus, far point, or point of reversal close to the eye, between the eye and the mirror. The observer, seated at the mirror one meter distant, gets an opposite movement in the pupillary

area from the direction in which he moves his mirror, and, of course, an inverted image. If the observer had his eye at the point where the emergent rays focused (dotted lines cross), he would not recognize any movement in the pupillary area, and it would have a uniform reflex. The amount of the myopia is equal to the distance measured from this point of reversal to the cornea; for example, if the distance (point of reversal) was 25 cm. from the patient's eye, then the amount of the myopia would be four diopters.

Figure 17 is a profile view of the myopic eye. The

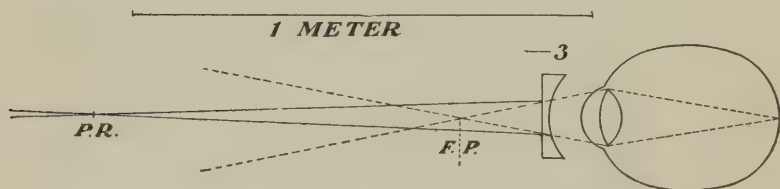


FIG. 17.

dotted lines show the rays coming from a point on the retina and focusing at the far point; the solid lines show the emergent rays acted upon or bent by a plano-concave lens of three diopters, which has lessened the convergence of these emergent rays and put the far point further from the eye, or at a distance of one meter. The observer at this distance does not appreciate any movement in the pupillary area, but if he moves the light and mirror closer to the eye he is then inside the point of reversal and gets an erect image moving with the movement of the mirror; if beyond the one meter distance, an in-

verted image and movement against the movement of the mirror will be seen. If a -4 D lens had been placed before this myopic eye, the emergent rays would have proceeded from it, parallel or emmetropic, and the observer, at one meter, would have the same conditions as in the refraction of an emmetropic eye, figure 15 ; but as only a -3 D glass was used, the eye has one diopter of its myopia uncorrected. From the description of retinoscopy in hyperopia, emmetropia, and myopia, just given, the student will recognize at once that the hyperopic, emmetropic, and myopic eye of less than one diopter, working with the plane mirror at one meter's distance, are given a stronger refraction than they naturally call for, or, in other words, are made, artificially, myopic 1 D. And the myopic eye of more than one diopter, under similar conditions, being already myopic, retains one diopter of its myopia. To give a patient thus refracted with the retinoscope his emmetropic correction (correction for parallel rays of light), *an allowance must always be made, in all meridians, of one diopter, no matter what the refraction.* The artificial myopia thus produced gives the following rules for glasses required for infinity :

Rules.—1. When the neutralizing lens employed is plus, then subtract one diopter.

2. When the neutralizing lens employed is minus, then add a -1 D, or what is more simple, or even a better rule, is: *To always add a -1 sphere to the neutralizing lens obtained in the dark room when working at one meter, and the result will be the emmetropic or infinity correction.*

Examples :

DARK ROOM,	+0.50	0.00	+1.00	+2.00	—1.00
ADDING,	—1.00	—1.00	—1.00	—1.00	—1.00
EMMETROPIC CORRECTION,	—0.50	—1.00	—0.00	+1.00	—2.00

The main point in all retinoscopic work to remember in changing from the dark room to the six meter correction, is to always allow for the distance from the patient's eye to the point of reversal ; i. e., if working at half a meter, allow two diopters ; if at two meters, 0.50 D ; if at four meters, 0.25 D, etc.

Regular Astigmatism.—When refracting with the retinoscope, the observer should remember *that he is refracting the meridian in the direction of which he moves the mirror*. Particular attention is called to this important fact on account of the confusion sometimes arising in the student's mind from the use of the ophthalmoscope, where the refractive condition of a certain meridian is studied by the appearance of the vessels at right angles to it. Astigmatism being present in an eye, means a difference in the strength of the glass required for the two principal meridians which, with few exceptions, are at right angles to each other, and it is to these two principal meridians *only* that the observer pays attention ; for example, the eye that takes the following formula,

$$+ 1.00 \text{ D } \odot + 1.00 \text{ c. axis } 105^{\circ},$$

means that on the 105 meridian there is + 1 D and on the 15 meridian a + 2 D. In the dark room a + 2 sphere on such an eye at one meter would correct the 105 meridian and partly correct the 15 mer-

idian ; or a $+3$ D would correct the 15 and over-correct (movement against) the 105 meridian. When with $+2$ D the 105 meridian is corrected and the 15 only partly so, there is seen in the 15 meridian a band of light which stands or extends across the pupil on the 105 meridian and moves across the pupil from left to right *with* the movement of the mirror as it is tilted in the 15 meridian.

The presence of this band of light *after* the meridian of least ametropia has been corrected *always* signifies astigmatism, and the axis it subtends—in

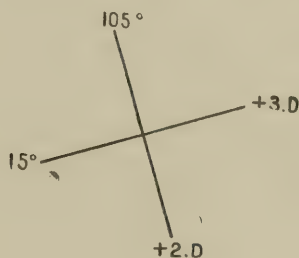


FIG. 18.

this case 105°—gives the axis of the cylinder in the prescription ; and the amount of the astigmatism, or the strength of the cylinder required, is the difference between the strength of the two spheres employed. Figure 18 shows the method of writing such a dark room correction, and adding, according to our rule, a -1 to this dark room work, we get our original formula :

$$+ 1.00 \text{ D } \bigcirc + 1.00 \text{ c. axis } 105^\circ.$$

The method of correcting with spheres will be found much more satisfactory than by placing a $+2$ D,

as called for in the 105 meridian, then adding and changing cylinders until the correct one is found. It takes much time and care to get the cylinder axis just right, and is most difficult in the dark room. After the result has been obtained with spheres, the observer may, if he is so disposed, prove it with the sphero-cylinder combination.

Astigmatism may or may not be recognized on first inspection of the fundus-reflex, this depending *entirely* on the refraction; if it be a high astigmatism with a small amount of refractive error in the opposite meridian, as in one of the following formulas,

$$\begin{aligned} &+ 1.00 \text{ D } \bigcirc + 3.00 \text{ c. axis } 75^\circ, \\ &- 1.00 \text{ D } \bigcirc - 4.00 \text{ c. axis } 180^\circ, \end{aligned}$$

then the band of light so characteristic of astigmatism will be plainly seen on first inspection, extending across the pupil before any neutralizing lens has been placed in position; but if the hyperopia or myopia be high and the cylinder required is low, as in one of the following formulas,

$$\begin{aligned} &+ 3.00 \text{ D } \bigcirc + 0.75 \text{ c. axis } 105^\circ, \\ &- 4.00 \text{ D } \bigcirc - 1.00 \text{ c. axis } 165^\circ, \end{aligned}$$

then the band of light is not recognized on first inspection or until an approximate correction has been placed before the eye. To get an idea of what the band of light looks like, the beginner may refer to figures 19 and 21; or focus rays of light through a strong cylinder; or, better still, place a cylinder in front of the schematic eye and study the retinal illumination. The student should bear in

mind that the axis of the band of light appears on the meridian of least ametropia, and is brightest when this meridian has received its full spheric correction—the opposite meridian being only partly corrected. The reason for the brightness of the band of light when the meridian of its axis is corrected is that any point on the retina in this meridian is conjugate to the focus on the observer's retina (point of reversal), and any movement of the mirror in this meridian is not recognized, but has a uniform color and occupies the entire meridian of the pupil. To recognize so small an error as a quarter diopter cylinder,—which is *not* easily detected, and the observer, if he is in a hurry, might think the case one of simple hyperopia or myopia,—the writer would suggest that when the supposed point of reversal is reached the correcting sphere be increased a quarter of a diopter, and *if* only one meridian is found over-corrected, the other remaining correct, he *then* knows that a quarter cylinder is required; for example, a $+2$ D is supposed to correct all meridians, and yet by substituting a $+2.25$ D the vertical meridian moves against and the horizontal remains stationary; then a $+0.25$ D cylinder is called for at axis 90° .

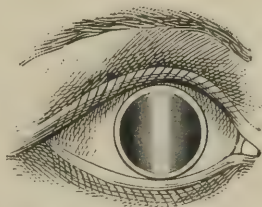


FIG. 19.—BAND OF LIGHT.
ASTIGMATISM AXIS 90° .

Mixed Astigmatism.—In this condition of refraction, where one meridian is myopic and the meridian at right angles to it is hyperopic, the move-

ment of the retinal illumination in the myopic meridian will be controlled by the amount of the myopia. The illumination in the myopic meridian, if the myopia is less than one diopter, moves with the mirror, and against the movement of the mirror if it is more than one diopter ; in this latter instance, where the movement of the myopic meridian is opposite to the movement of the mirror and with in the hyperopic meridian, the observer gets a distinct band of light in the meridians alternately as each meridian is neutralized separately with a sphere. Taking the following example,

$$-2.00 \text{ c. axis } 180^\circ \bigcirc + 1.00 \text{ c. axis } 90^\circ,$$

the 90 meridian shows an *opposite* movement, and in the horizontal the movement is *with* the movement of the mirror. If, now, a -1 D sphere be placed before the eye, the 90 meridian is neutralized for one meter distance, and a bright band of light is seen at 90° , moving with the movement of the mirror on the horizontal meridian. Removing the -1 D and placing a $+2$ D before the eye, which would neutralize the horizontal meridian for one meter, a bright band will be seen on the horizontal axis and moving opposite to the movement of the mirror. Carrying out the rule of always adding a -1 D sphere to the correction obtained in the dark room at one meter, we have -1 added to the -1 in the vertical meridian, making -2 D, axis 180° ; and adding -1 to the $+2$ D in the horizontal, we have $+1$ D for axis 90° , or our original formula :

$$-2.00 \text{ c. axis } 180^\circ \bigcirc + 1.00 \text{ c. axis } 90^\circ.$$

The rule for neutralizing lenses in mixed astigmatism is the same as for any other form of refraction ; namely, using a plus lens when the movement is with, and a minus lens when the movement is opposite to, the movement of the light on the face.

Axonometer.—To find the exact axis subtended by the band of light while studying the retinal illumination, when the meridian of least ametropia has been corrected, the writer has suggested a small instrument which, for want of a better name, he has called an axonometer.

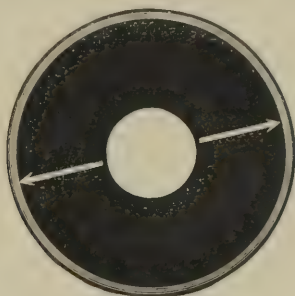


FIG. 20.

Figure 20 shows this instrument, and figure 21 the axonometer in position.

The description of this device was published in *The Medical News*, March 3, 1894, as follows : " The direction of the principal meridians of corneal curvature is often difficult to determine, and the statement of the patient must be accepted when confirming the shadow-test correction ; or, if there is still uncertainty, the ophthalmometer of Javal must be brought into use. The axonometer is a black metal

disc, with a milled edge, one and one-half mm. in thickness, of the diameter of the ordinary trial-lens, and mounted in a cell of the trial-set. It has a central round opening 12 mm. in diameter—the diameter of the average cornea at its base. Two heavy white lines, one on each side, pass from the circumference across to the central opening, bisecting the disc. To use the axonometer, place it in the front opening of the trial-frame, and with the patient seated erect and frame accurately adjusted so that

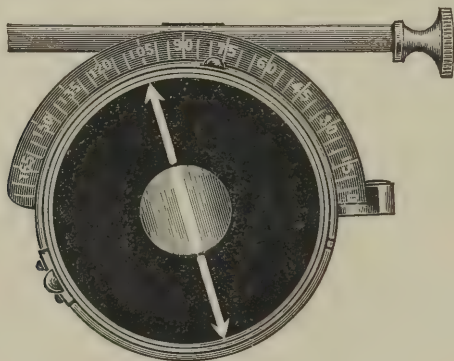


FIG. 21.

the cornea of the eye to be refracted occupies the central opening, proceed as in the usual method of making the shadow-test. As soon as that lens is found which corrects the meridian of least ametropia, and the band of light appears distinct, turn the axonometer slowly until the two heavy white lines accurately coincide, or appear to make one continuous line with the band of light. (See Fig. 21.)

“The degree marks on the trial-frame to which the arrow-head at the end of the white lines then

points is the exact axis for the cylinder. The axonometer possesses the following points of merit :

“Simplicity.

“Accuracy.

“Small expense.

“It covers an unnecessary part of the trial-lens which too frequently gives annoying reflexes and images.

“It saves time, avoids the statement of the patient, and renders the ophthalmometer unnecessary.

“Its color (black) absorbs the superfluous light rays from the mirror and gives a stronger contrast to the reflex and central illumination.

“Limiting the field of vision in children, it permits of more concentrated attention.

“For children and nervous patients, when it is difficult to use the ophthalmometer, this simple appliance is of great service.”

CHAPTER VI.

RETINOSCOPY IN THE VARIOUS FORMS OF IRREGULAR AMETROPIA.—RETINOSCOPY WITHOUT A CYCLOPLEGIC.—THE CONCAVE MIRROR.—DESCRIPTION OF THE AUTHOR'S SCHEMATIC EYE AND LIGHT-SCREEN.

Irregular Astigmatism.—This condition is either in the cornea or in the lens ; in any instance it is confusing to the beginner, and even the expert must work slowly to obtain a result. The corneal form is most difficult to refract, as the retinal illumination is more or less obscured by areas of darkness. The illumination between these dark areas appears to move with, in places, and in others against, the movement of the mirror. By moving the mirror so as to make the light describe a circle around the pupillary edge a most unique kinetoscopic picture is obtained, which is quite diagnostic of the condition. To refract an eye with this irregularity the observer may have to change his position several times to or from the patient. Very often these eyes are astigmatic, and the band of light may be promptly noted by the observer changing his position as suggested, and at the same time placing a neutralizing lens in position. Care *must* be taken, also, to refract in the area of the cornea that will correspond to the small pupil when the effect of the cycloplegic passes away. It is always best, in these cases of irregular corneal astigmatism, to retain the correction found

and use it to assist in a post-cycloplegic manifest refraction.

Irregular astigmatism of the lens is often more or less uniform, and not so broken as in the corneal variety. Figures 22 and 23 show two kinds of irregular lenticular astigmatism.

Figure 22 illustrates the spicules pointing in from the periphery, and as long as these do not encroach upon the pupillary area they do not usually interfere with vision; they are not often recognized until the pupil is dilated, are then very faint, and not usually

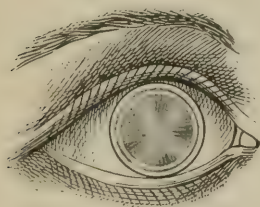


FIG. 22.

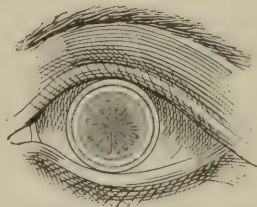


FIG. 23.

IRREGULAR LENTICULAR ASTIGMATISM.

made out until the point of reversal is approached. Figure 23 is another form of irregular lenticular astigmatism, and a very interesting picture as studied with the retinoscope; and, as in figure 22, when very faint, is not made out until close to the point of reversal. These two forms of irregular lenticular astigmatism, when *just* beginning, are very seldom seen with the ophthalmoscope; the striations are too fine to be made out except under the conditions just described, and when recognized are of inestimable value from a point of prophylactic treatment, calling for a change of occupation, rest

to the eyes, and carefully selected glasses, the latter often being weak lenses. These two lenticular conditions not infrequently accompany the "flannel-red" fundus, the "fluffy eye ground," the "shot-silk retina," the "woolly choroid," etc.

Scissor Movement.—Another form of astigmatism that may be classed as irregular is where there are two bands of light seen on the horizontal meridian, or inclined a few degrees therefrom either way, and moving toward each other as the mirror is tilted in the opposite meridian; in other words, as

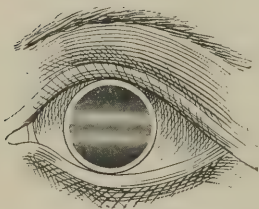


FIG. 24.—TWO BANDS OF LIGHT. SCISSOR MOVEMENT.

the observer is seated at one meter he sees a band of light above and a band of light below, with a dark interspace, these bands coming together and again separating as the mirror is tilted in the vertical meridian. This movement of the bands is likened to the opening and closing of the

scissor blades, and hence the name of scissor movement. In neutralizing a case of scissor movement, the observer must look carefully between the bands of light for the central retinal illumination, and to a great extent ignore the bands. The character of the astigmatism, so far as known, is *with* the rule.

These cases are more or less difficult to refract, but the presence of the two bands of light will often assist in a correct selection of glasses, for while they are generally of the compound hyperopic variety, calling for a plus sphere and plus cylinder, yet prac-

tice and the patient's statement often call for a plus sphere and minus cylinder.

With the following formula,

$$+ 2.00 \text{ D } \odot + 0.75 \text{ c. axis } 75^{\circ},$$

substituting a sphere the strength of the combined values of the sphere and cylinder, and using a minus cylinder of the same number as the plus cylinder at the opposite axis, the result will be,

$$+ 2.75 \text{ D } \odot - 0.75 \text{ c. axis } 165^{\circ}.$$

The vision with the latter formula is much better in many instances than with the former, and though either formula would be correct, yet the latter is practically the better of the two, and should be ordered when so found. The condition which may be the probable cause of the scissor movement is a slight tilting of the lens; that is, the antero-posterior axis of the lens does not stand perpendicular to the plane of the cornea, thus making one portion of the pupil myopic (band of light moving opposite) and the other portion hyperopic (band of light moving with the movement of the mirror). This condition may be simulated by placing a convex lens at an angle before the schematic eye, or reflecting the light into the eye obliquely. What causes the tilting of the lens, the writer is not prepared to state *positively*; it may be congenital, and yet careful inquiry of the patients, in many instances, has shown that it is most likely due to using the eyes to excess in the recumbent posture. It may be a coincidence, but most of the cases of scissor movement seen by the

author have been in adults, and those who were in the habit of reading while lying down, reading themselves to sleep at night in bed. Other cases were seen among paper-hangers, whose occupation compelled them to look upward much of the time. These do not seem unlikely causes, especially when the anatomy of the ciliary region is considered, the strain of the accommodation (possibly spasm) during the faulty position of the eye tilting the lens as it rests upon the vitreous body. The amount of the astigmatism resulting from this injurious position of using the eyes is not always in proportion to the length of time the habit has been persisted in. One patient had only half a diopter of astigmatism and had been in the habit of reading himself to sleep in bed, almost nightly for the preceding twenty years. As the writer has never seen or read of a case of monocular scissor movement he is disposed to believe that the causes suggested are the most plausible. The strength of cylinder in the scissor movement seldom exceeds one diopter, and is often less. This form of astigmatism, so far as known, remains a permanent one even after a cessation from the original cause and correcting glasses have been ordered. The retinoscope is the only instrument of precision we have in diagnosing this condition. The ophthalmoscope may recognize the presence of the astigmatism, but not its location or character.

Compound Irregular Astigmatism.—A hasty review of the literature of astigmatism does not reveal any reference to this form, and the name for the condition has been suggested by the following pic-

ture, namely: When studying the reflex, a vertical band of light will be seen passing across the pupillary area from left to right as the mirror is turned, and then in the vertical meridian (not necessarily at right angles) the scissor movement will be recognized also; there is, therefore, a combination of regular corneal astigmatism with the scissor movement, giving the compound name suggested. This form of astigmatism is rare, yet not difficult to diagnose or refract when understood. It is hoped, however, that the beginner in retinoscopy may not meet one of these on his first attempt at the human eye.

Conic Cornea.—Reflecting the light into an eye that has such a condition, the observer is impressed at once with the bright, round, central illumination that moves opposite to the movement of the mirror, the peripheral refraction moving with, unless perchance the margin should be myopic also, but of less degree. The best way to refract a case of this kind is to keep a record of the neutralizing lens required for the portion of the pupillary area that will correspond to the size of the pupil after the effect of the cycloplegic passes away, and use this record as a guide in a post-cycloplegic manifest correction, as in irregular corneal astigmatism.

Spheric Aberration.—This appears under two forms, positive or negative, and is the condition in which the peripheral refraction in the positive form is stronger than the central and in the negative weaker; that is to say, in the positive form, when the neutralizing lens has reduced the retinal illumination in size and increased its rate of movement, and the

point of reversal for the center of the pupil is close to one meter, the peripheral illumination grows broader and has a tendency to, and often will, crowd in upon the small central illumination, giving the idea of neutralization, or even the appearance of over-correction, the refraction in the periphery moving opposite. The observer must be on his guard for this condition, and while giving the mirror a slow and limited rotation must watch the illumination in the center of the pupil and not hasten the peripheral refraction. (See What to Avoid, p. 30, chap. iv.) The observer may have to approach the patient's eye closer than one meter if the peripheral refraction is very marked. The negative form is where the peripheral refraction is weak as compared to the central, which appears strong, and when the neutralizing lens gives a point of reversal at the center of the pupil the peripheral refraction still moves with the movement of the mirror. This condition is generally seen in cases of conic cornea.

Retinoscopy Without a Cycloplegic.—In cases of myopia and mixed astigmatism where the pupil is large, the refraction *can* be quickly and accurately obtained by the shadow-test without the use of a cycloplegic. This has been repeatedly proven by comparison of the manifest and cycloplegic results; yet it is not a method to be pursued, for two reasons: One is that the patients are not annoyed, like hyperopias, by the blurred vision incident to the cycloplegic; and, secondly, glasses ordered without the cycloplegic seldom give the comfort that follows from the physiologic rest the eye receives

from the drug. The surgeon will obtain much assistance and save time by using the retinoscope in cases of aphakia, in old people especially who are very slow to answer, and will insist upon a description of what they do and do not see, as also in re-reading the test-card from the very top each time a change of lens is put in the trial-frame. Presbyopes of fifty or more years of age can be quickly and not inconveniently refracted by the shadow-test after having their pupils dilated with a weak (four per cent.) solution of cocain.

Concave Mirror.—While the study of retinoscopy with the concave mirror is not a part of the subject of this book, and allusion to it has been carefully avoided up to this time, yet for the benefit of those who may wish to try it, the writer would suggest that it will be necessary to place the source of light (20 or 30 mm. opening in light-screen) above and beyond the patient's head, one meter distant, or more, so that the convergent rays from the mirror come to a focus and cross before entering the observed eye. Then to estimate the refraction, proceed as with the plane mirror, remembering, however, that the movements of the retinal illumination are just the reverse of those obtained when using the plane mirror.

The Author's Schematic Eye for Studying Retinoscopy.—For illustration see figure 1 and the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, January 5, 1895. The eye as here shown, slightly reduced in size, is made of two brass cylinders, one somewhat smaller than its fellow, to permit slipping evenly into

the other. Both cylinders are well blackened inside, and the larger is also blackened outside. The smaller cylinder is closed at one end (concave surface), and on its inner surface is placed a colored lithograph of the normal eye ground. The larger cylinder is also closed at one end, except for a central round opening ten mm. in diameter, which is occupied by a + 16 D lens, and on its outer surface is a colored lithograph of the normal eye and its appendages; the pupil is left dilated, and corresponds to the central opening just referred to. In addition to the picture of the eye, there is also lithographed on the upper half of the periphery the degree marks similar to those on a trial-frame. To the lower half of the periphery are secured, at equal distances, three posts with grooves to hold trial-lenses. On the side of the small cylinder is an index which records emmetropia, and the amount of myopia and hyperopia, as it is pushed into or drawn out of the large cylinder. The eye is mounted on a convenient stand and upright, so that it may be moved as required. In using this eye, if the red eye ground and retinal vessels disturb the beginner then he may substitute a piece of white paper for the retina. To study astigmatism with the model, the beginner will have to place a cylinder, of known strength, in the groove next to the eye and study the characteristic band of light so diagnostic of this condition, and at the same time he should learn to locate the axis of the band with the axonometer.

The author's light-screen or cover chimney
(see figure 3 and the *Annals of Ophthalmology*

and *Otology*, October, 1896) is made of one-eighth inch asbestos, and of sufficient size to fit easily over the glass chimney of the Argand burner; attached to the asbestos by means of a metal clamp are two superimposed discs which revolve independently of each other. The lower disc contains a piece of white porcelain, 30 mm. in diameter, also four round openings, respectively 5, 10, 20, and 35 mm. in diameter. The upper disc contains a round 35 mm. opening, a round section of blue cobalt glass, a perforated disc, a vertical and a horizontal slit, each $2\frac{1}{2}$ by 25 mm. The several uses of this screen are as follows:

1. For the ophthalmoscope a good light is obtained by superimposing the two 35 mm. openings.
2. Combining the 35 mm. opening in the upper with either the 5 or 10 mm. in the lower disc a source of light is procured for the small retinoscope; and,
3. By substituting the 20 mm. opening, light is had for the concave mirror.
4. Placing the cobalt glass over the 5, 10, 20, or 35 mm. opening, and the chromo-aberration test of ametropia is given.
5. To test for astigmatism at one meter while using the plane mirror, or for heterophoria at six meters, the perforated disc is to be turned over the porcelain, the latter producing a clear white image.
6. The horizontal slit placed over the porcelain glass, and the operator may exercise the oblique muscles.
7. The vertical slit similarly placed gives the test for paralyzed muscles.

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